Chapter 1

Disjoint Forms in Graphical User Interfaces

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Abstract: Forms are parts of a graphical user interface (GUI) that show a (structured) value and allow the user to update it. Some forms express a choice between two or more (structured) values using radio buttons or check boxes. We show that explicitly modelling such a choice leads to a cleaner separation of logic and layout. This is done by extending the combinator library FunctionalForms with disjoint form combinators. To implement these, we have generalized the technique of compositional functional references which underlies the library.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Forms are parts of a graphical user interface (GUI) that show a (structured) value and allow the user to update it. For example, the omnipresent dialogs labeled Options, Settings and Preferences are forms. An address book can also be considered a form. In our previous work, we have developed the combinator library FunctionalForms[2] for building forms in a concise, compositional way.

Many real-life forms allow a choice between two or more alternatives, some of which require extra information. For example, the form in Fig. 1.1 indicates whether the user wishes to receive a certain newsletter; if s/he does, the text entry field next to this option should contain his/her email address. If s/he does not, this text field is irrelevant (some GUIs provide a visual clue for this: the control is dimmed).

Usually, the information in such a form is processed as a product-like data structure containing the choice (e.g. as a boolean) and the extra information (e.g. as a string). However, most functional languages allow data types which are more suited to this task, namely disjoint union types. In Haskell[4], we would define

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FIGURE 1.1. A ‘disjoint’ form

\[ \text{data } \text{NewsLetter} = \text{NewsYes } \text{String} \mid \text{NewsNo} \]

for the type of information in the example form.

While the combinators in FunctionalForms previously only supported forms with product-like data structures, in this paper we extend them to enable the explicit definition of such a disjoint form. Rather than as a ‘yes/no’ form and an ‘email’ form, it can now be composed as a ‘yes, email’ form or a ‘no’ form. We demonstrate that this technique leads to a better separation of logic and layout in disjoint forms. For its implementation, we have generalized the compositional functional references which underlie the library.

This paper is organized as follows: it first gives a summary of the library’s basic use, which has not changed (Sect. 1.2). Then, the use and merits of the extension are demonstrated (Sect. 1.3), after which its implementation is discussed in Sect. 1.4. Next, we show that the gained flexibility leads to some safety issues (Sect. 1.5). We finish with related work (Sect. 1.6) and conclusions (Sect. 1.7).

1.2 FUNCTIONALFORMS SUMMARY

FunctionalForms[2] is a combinator library built on the GUI library wxHaskell[7] (itself built on the cross-platform C++ library wxWidgets[11]). It can be seen as an embedded domain-specific language for forms: it consists of atomic forms and ways to combine them into larger forms in a declarative style. In this section, we give a brief summary of its basic use, which is the same as described in [2], although the types have changed a little.

A form is a GUI part, residing somewhere within a dialog with OK and Cancel buttons, which is only able to display and alter a certain value. When the dialog appears, the form has an initial value which is provided by its environment; subsequently, the user can read and alter this value; at the end, the user closes the dialog with one of the buttons, and the form passes the final value back to the environment. The type of this value is called the subject type of the form.

Atomic forms correspond to a single control containing an editable value. Examples are a text entry field, containing a String, and a spin control, containing an Int:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{entry' :: Monad } m & \Rightarrow \left[ \text{Prop } (\text{TextCtrl } ()) \right] \rightarrow \text{Ref } m \text{ String } \rightarrow \text{FForm } \text{win } m \text{ Layout} \\
\text{spinCtrl' :: Monad } m & \Rightarrow \text{Int } \rightarrow \text{Int } \rightarrow \left[ \text{Prop } (\text{SpinCtrl } ()) \right] \rightarrow \text{Ref } m \text{ Int } \rightarrow \text{FForm } \text{win } m \text{ Layout}
\end{align*}
\]
FIGURE 1.2. ticketsForm

We follow the convention that library functions are underlined, and an atomic form is named after the corresponding \texttt{wxHaskell} function which creates its control, but with an additional prime symbol. Every atomic form is parameterized with a list of optional properties used for customizing the control, e.g. its size and font (leaving this list empty produces reasonable defaults). Some atomic forms, like \texttt{spinCtrl}′, require additional parameters: its first two arguments indicate a minimum and maximum value.

All these parameters actually have little to do with \texttt{FunctionalForms}; they are directly passed to the \texttt{wxHaskell} control creation function. In contrast, the last parameter of both forms is specific to \texttt{FunctionalForms}; it is a reference value which relates the atomic form’s subject type (\texttt{String} and \texttt{Int}, resp.) to the subject type of the top-level form. A more detailed description of the \texttt{Ref} and \texttt{FForm} types is postponed to Sect. 1.4.

To combine atomic forms into larger forms, two aspects have to be composed: layout and subject type. The former is performed by layout combinators like \texttt{grid}, \texttt{margin}′, and \texttt{floatLeft}′. These are based on the \texttt{wxHaskell} layout combinators after which they are named, but operate directly on forms.\footnote{instead of on \texttt{Layout} values of widgets—for those familiar with \texttt{wxHaskell}} For example, the two atomic forms can be put in a grid layout with some labels (see Fig. 1.2):

\[
\text{grid} 5 5 \left[ \begin{array}{cc}
\text{label} "\text{name :}" & \text{entry} [\text{name}] \\
\text{label} "\text{nr. of tickets :}" & \text{spinCtrl} 1 6 [\text{nr}]
\end{array} \right]
\]

Note that the two reference values (\texttt{name :: Ref m String}) and (\texttt{nr :: Ref m Int}) are free variables in this expression. Also, this form’s subject type is not yet established. To complete the form composition, \texttt{name} and \texttt{nr} are bound in a lambda expression, onto which a subject type combinator, namely \texttt{declare2}, is applied:

\[
ticketsForm :: \text{Monad m} \Rightarrow \text{Ref m (String,Int)} \rightarrow \text{FForm win m Layout}
ticketsForm = \text{declare2} \lambda (\text{name}, \text{nr}) \rightarrow \text{grid} 5 5 \left[ \begin{array}{cc}
\text{label} "\text{name :}" & \text{entry} [\text{name}] \\
\text{label} "\text{nr. of tickets :}" & \text{spinCtrl} 1 6 [\text{nr}]
\end{array} \right]
\]

This ‘declares’ \texttt{ticketsForm}’s subject type to be \texttt{(String,Int)}, as witnessed by its actual type declaration (which can be omitted). Just like the atomic forms, \texttt{ticketsForm} can now be used as a component of a larger form. Note how this two-stage process of form construction separates the definition of layout and subject type structures, providing a great deal of freedom to the library user (see also [2]).
Besides \(\text{declare2}\), which declares a pair, the library also provides subject type combinators for tuples of higher arity and for lists.

\[
declare2 :: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow ((\text{Ref } m \ t_1, \text{Ref } m \ t_2) \to z) \to \text{Ref } m (t_1, t_2) \to z
\]

\[
declare3 :: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow ((\text{Ref } m \ t_1, \text{Ref } m \ t_2, \text{Ref } m \ t_3) \to z) \to \text{Ref } m (t_1, t_2, t_3) \to z
\]

\[\cdots\]

\[
declareL :: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow ([\text{Ref } m \ t] \to z) \to \text{Ref } m [t] \to z
\]

The \(\text{declareL}\) combinator only composes forms for the list \(\text{elements}\) and cannot alter the spine; it produces a form for lists of a fixed length.

To run a form in a \(\text{wxHaskell}\) program, the library function \(\text{runInDialog}\) is used. For example, this runs the above defined \(\text{ticketsForm}\) with \textit{John} and \textit{2} in the atomic forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
do & \ldots \\
& (\text{newname}, \text{newnr}) \leftarrow \text{runInDialog parentWindow ticketsForm ("John", 2)} \\
& \ldots
\end{align*}
\]

The function takes as its arguments a pointer to a parent window, the form itself, and an initial value of the form’s subject type. It returns an IO action, which produces a modal dialog containing the form and \(\text{OK}/\text{Cancel}\) buttons. When the user presses \(\text{OK}\), the return value is bound to altered value in the form; if \(\text{Cancel}\) is pressed, the initial value is returned instead. After this, the IO thread continues.

### 1.3 COMBINATORS FOR DISJOINT FORMS

This section describes, from a library user’s point of view, the additions for defining disjoint forms. As an example, we will define a form for contact information, depicted in Fig. 1.3. It has subject type

\[
\textbf{data Contact} = \text{ByPhone} \text{ Phone} | \text{ByEmail} \text{ String} | \text{NotAtAll}
\]

and expresses a choice between a phone number, an email address and no information at all. Before we can start defining the form itself, we need to define three custom subject type combinators for this type’s data constructors. This is
done using a Template Haskell [8] macro named `declare`, which is included in the library.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{declareByPhone} &= \$(\text{declare}[[\text{ByPhone}]|1]) \\
\text{declareByEmail} &= \$(\text{declare}[[\text{ByEmail}]|1]) \\
\text{declareNotAtAll} &= \$(\text{declare}[[\text{NotAtAll}]|0])
\end{align*}
\]

For each of the constructors, we provide the macro with its name and arity. The delimiters $(\ldots)$ and $[\ldots]$ are Template Haskell syntax, which the library user does not need to worry about.\(^2\)

The three fresh subject type combinators are used to turn forms with subject types (resp.) Phone, String and no subject type at all into forms with subject type Contact. Their type signatures are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{declareByPhone} &:: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow (\text{Ref } m \text{ Phone } \rightarrow z) \rightarrow \text{Ref } m \text{ Contact } \rightarrow z \\
\text{declareByEmail} &:: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow (\text{Ref } m \text{ String } \rightarrow z) \rightarrow \text{Ref } m \text{ Contact } \rightarrow z \\
\text{declareNotAtAll} &:: \text{Monad } m \Rightarrow \text{FForm win } m \text{ l } \rightarrow \text{Ref } m \text{ Contact } \rightarrow \text{FForm win } m \text{ l}
\end{align*}
\]

In the last type signature, the type \text{FForm win } m \text{ l} plays the same role as \(z\) in the above signatures. The reason why it is more constrained is that \text{declareNotAtAll} appends its argument form with an invisible form for handling the NotAtAll value.

Using these subject type combinators, \text{contactForm}_{1} can be defined as follows; we assume (\text{phoneForm} :: \text{Ref } m \text{ Phone } \rightarrow \text{FForm win } m \text{ Layout}) is defined somewhere else:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{contactForm}_{1} &= \text{radioGrid} [\text{byPhone}, \text{byEmail}, \text{byNothing}] \\
\text{byPhone} &= \text{declareByPhone} \$ \lambda \text{phone} \rightarrow \text{row'} 5 [\text{label} "\text{by phone :}" , \text{phoneForm phone}] \\
\text{byEmail} &= \text{declareByEmail} \$ \lambda \text{email} \rightarrow \text{row'} 5 [\text{label} "\text{by email :}" , \text{entry'} [] \text{email}] \\
\text{byNothing} &= \text{declareNotAtAll} \$ \text{label} "\text{do not contact me}"
\end{align*}
\]

The new disjoint form combinator \text{radioGrid} arranges its list of subforms into a grid layout, with radio buttons to the left of them. Due to their subject type combinators, the three subforms have the same subject type as the composite form (Contact), but each only 'works' for a particular data constructor. For example, the \text{byEmail} form only handles ByEmail values. This means that when \text{contactForm}_{1} is run with an initial ByEmail value, the middle radio button is selected, and only the text field next to it receives an initial value. The other text

\(^2\)Template Haskell is a GHC compiler extension for meta-programming, i.e. programmatically manipulating a program at the syntactic level. The delimiters turn a meta-language expression into an object-language expression and vice versa. Both object language and meta-language are Haskell.
field is left empty (or contains a default value, if the programmer has specified this in phoneForm). When the form is closed, every subform contains a final value with its particular Contact data constructor, but only one of them is promoted to contactForm₁’s final value; this choice is determined by the radio button selected at that time.

What is the advantage of using the disjoint form combinator radioGrid, apart from stylistic arguments? Consider the alternative case, in which the form in Fig. 1.3 is defined as a conjunction of a radioBox (with an Int for three possible choices), a phoneForm and an entry; its subject type would be (Int, Phone, String). At some later time, the interaction design department decides the form should rather look like Fig. 1.4 or like Fig. 1.5. Note that these forms still express exactly the same choice. However, when the form code is changed accordingly, its subject type would be (Int, Int, Phone, String) or (Bool, Int, Phone, String), and the code which handles the form data should also be altered.

If we use disjoint forms instead, the disjoint subject type can remain the same. In the code, we only need to add an extra radioGrid for the first case:

\[
\text{contactForm}_2 = \text{radioGrid} \\
\begin{array}{l}
\text{noContact} = \text{declareNotAtAll} \\
\text{yesContact} = \text{radioGrid} \text{byPhone byEmail}
\end{array}
\]

For the second case, we use another disjoint form combinator, namely checkRow:

\[
\text{contactForm}_3 = \text{checkRow} \\
\begin{array}{l}
\text{yesContact} = \text{radioGrid} \text{byPhone byEmail}
\end{array}
\]

The functionality of these forms is still the same: they display a value of their subject type Contact, and allow the user to change it into another value of that type.

1.4 IMPLEMENTATION

Although the user of FunctionalForms does not notice a difference, apart from the new combinators and slightly altered Ref and FForm types, the implementation of the library has undergone substantial changes since its first version in [2]. These
allow for generalized forms, which may \textit{fail} to consume an initial value (or produce a final value), and which can be joined with the disjoint form combinators \texttt{radioGrid} and \texttt{checkRow}. To construct these forms, the \textit{compositional functional references} have also been generalized. Furthermore, the ‘heart’ of a form, which determines the communication with its environment, has been made explicit in a type \texttt{RefLink}. In order to deal with the new \texttt{FForm} type in Sect. 1.4.3, we will first discuss these \texttt{Ref} and \texttt{RefLink} types.

### 1.4.1 The \texttt{Ref} type

A reference value consists of two functions which are used to ‘refer to’ a \texttt{t} part of a—usually stateful—monad \texttt{m}:

\begin{verbatim}
data Ref m t = Ref { val :: m t , app :: (t -> m t) -> m () }
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{val} function retrieves the value of this particular part of the monadic state, whereas the \texttt{app} function updates it. For example, for a state of type \((t_1, t_2)\), the value referring to the \texttt{t}_1 element would be:

\begin{verbatim}
reffst :: MonadState (t_1, t_2) m => Ref m t
reffst = Ref { val = do { (x, y) <- get; return x } , app = \f -> do { \(\sim\)(x, y) <- get; x' <- f x; put (x', y) } }
\end{verbatim}

Note the lazy pattern match in the \texttt{app} function; it is useful when constructing a new state from scratch (i.e. the previous state contains \texttt{⊥}).

A reference to the value in a \texttt{Just} data constructor (from the well-known \texttt{Maybe} type) can be defined in a very similar way:

\begin{verbatim}
refffromJust :: MonadState (Maybe t) m => Ref m t
refffromJust = Ref { val = do { Just x <- get; return x } , app = \f -> do { \(\sim\)(Just x) <- get; x' <- f x; put (Just x') } }
\end{verbatim}

This reference value may seem ill-defined because it can ‘dangle’: when the monadic state contains \texttt{Nothing}, it does not refer to anything. However, this situation can be detected using monadic error-handling, and the control flow can be adapted. We will show how this is done in Sect. 1.4.2, when we join two \texttt{RefLinks}.

The operator \texttt{•} composes two reference values, taking the referred part of the second value’s state as the state of the first value. For example, the following value refers to the first element of a pair within a \texttt{Just} value:

\begin{verbatim}
reffst • refffromJust :: MonadState (Maybe (t_1, t_2)) m => Ref m t
\end{verbatim}

The composition is performed by applying a monad transformer to the monad of the second reference value. This ‘adds state’ to this monad, on which the first
A reference value can act. Meanwhile, properties of the original monad such as IO ability or error handling are preserved.

```
• :: Monad m ⇒ Ref (StateT cx m) t → Ref m cx → Ref m t
  w • v = Ref
    { val = val v ≫= evalStateT (val w)
    , app = λf → (app v) $ execStateT $ (app w) $ lift . f
    }
```

This operator is used to define subject type combinators like:

```
declare2 :: Monad m ⇒ ((Ref m t₁, Ref m t₂) → z) → Ref m (t₁, t₂) → z
declare2 refsToForm refP = refsToForm (reffst • refP, refsnd • refP)
```

```
declareJust :: Monad m ⇒ (Ref m a → z) → Ref m (Maybe a) → z
declareJust refToForm refMaybe = refToForm (reffromJust • refMaybe)
```

These subject type combinators all follow the same pattern. This pattern is captured in the Template Haskell macro `declare`, so definitions like the two above do not have to be handwritten for every data constructor.

### 1.4.2 The RefLink type

The heart of an atomic form consists of a link between two reference values. The first is of type `Ref m t`, and relates the subject type `t` of this form to that of the topmost form (the state type in `m`). This is the reference value that is explicitly provided by the library user, e.g. in the expression `entry [] refm`. The second reference value is implicit in every atomic form; it is of type `Ref IO t`, and relates this form’s subject type to a part of the IO state. It is constructed from wxHaskell’s `get` and `set` functions for the control’s main attribute (e.g. `text` on an `entry` control).

In the terminology of the well-known model–view–(controller) paradigm[6], the reference values refer to a part of the topmost form’s `model` and a part of its `view`, respectively. Joining them in a `RefLink` means linking those parts to each other: the `val` output from the first reference is used as `app` input for the second, and vice versa. Thus, two operations are obtained which both enforce consistency between model and view:

- The `update` operation copies the value from the form’s model to its view. This is used to show the form’s initial value.
- The `propagate` operation copies the value from the form’s view to its model. This is used to read the form’s final value.

In monadic terms, the `update` operation is a read action in the `m` monad producing a write action in the `IO` monad. Conversely, the `propagate` operation is a read
action in the \textit{IO} monad producing a write action in the \textit{m} monad. This results in the following type for \texttt{RefLink} (where the \textit{n} monad abstracts from \textit{IO}):

\begin{verbatim}
data RefLink m n = RefLink
  { update :: m (n ()),
    propagate :: n (m ())
  }
\end{verbatim}

The function \texttt{refLink} connects the two references to create such a \texttt{RefLink}. For the \textit{update} function, first an input \(v\) is retrieved from the \textit{m} reference. Then, a constant function \texttt{const (return \(v\))} is applied to the corresponding part in the \textit{n} monad using the \textit{n} reference; this action in the \textit{n} monad is returned in the \textit{m} monad. For the \textit{propagate} function, the roles of \textit{m} and \textit{n} are reversed:

\begin{verbatim}
refLink :: (Monad m, Monad n) ⇒ Ref m a → Ref n a → RefLink m n
refLink ref m ref n = RefLink
  { update = (val refm) >>= return . (app refn) . const . return
  , propagate = (val refn) >>= return . (app refm) . const . return
  }
\end{verbatim}

When two forms are joined, their \texttt{RefLink}s are combined into a new \texttt{RefLink}. Usually, the intention is that the joint \textit{update} performs both component \textit{updates}, and likewise for the \textit{propagates}. We consider this to be the ‘default’ operator on \texttt{RefLink}. In order to meet the \texttt{MonadWriter} interface (see Sect. 1.4.3), we encode it using the \texttt{Monoid} class:

\begin{verbatim}
instance (Monad m, Monad n) ⇒ Monoid (RefLink m n)
  where mempty = RefLink
        { update = return $ return (),
          propagate = return $ return ()
        }
rl1 'mappend' rl2 = RefLink
  { update = liftM2 (≫) (update rl1) (update rl2)
  , propagate = liftM2 (≫) (propagate rl1) (propagate rl2)
  }
\end{verbatim}

For disjoint forms, the two \texttt{RefLink}s should be joined in an alternative way. In this situation, they share one part of the model part, which is a disjoint union (e.g. the subject type of both forms is \texttt{Either a b}). Meanwhile, they refer to different parts of the view (which contains controls for both \textit{a} and \textit{b}). Hence, the two \texttt{RefLink}s connect independent parts of the view state space to ‘competing’ parts of the model state space. Instead of performing both \textit{update} (\textit{propagate}) operations, only one can (should) be performed.

We obtain this behaviour by using the \texttt{mplus} operator of the model monad \textit{m}; therefore, this should be an instance of \texttt{MonadPlus}. The joint \textit{update} will then (dynamically) choose between the first component \textit{update} or the second—and likewise for \textit{propagate}. Hence, we define an alternative monoid on the \texttt{RefLink}
domain. By using a different representation for the RefLink type, the Monoid class can again be used for this:

```haskell
newtype RefLinkPlusM m n = RefLinkPlusM { pm :: RefLink m n }
instance (MonadPlus m, Monad n) ⇒ Monoid (RefLinkPlusM m n) where
  mempty = RefLinkPlusM $ RefLink
    { update = mzero
    , propagate = return mzero
  }
  rl1 `mappend` rl2 = RefLinkPlusM $ RefLink
    { update = (update $ pm rl1) `mplus` (update $ pm rl2)
    , propagate = liftM2 mplus (propagate $ pm rl1) (propagate $ pm rl2)
  }
```

The exact semantics of mplus depend on the monad m. In practice, we use an error-handling state monad ErrorT e (State a). This means that the first argument of mplus is always tried first; if it fails, the second argument is tried. When disjoint forms are used correctly, the alternatives are mutually exclusive, so this order is irrelevant.

1.4.3 The FForm type

A form is a value of the following type:

```haskell
newtype FForm win m a = FForm
  { runFForm :: Window win → IO (a, RefLink m IO) }
```

It contains three pieces of information:

1. An IO action which creates the form’s controls. This action depends on a pointer to a parent window of type Window win, in which they are created.
2. A RefLink used to update the values in the controls from—and propagate them to—the form’s model.
3. Additional information of type a; usually layout information of type Layout (defined by the wxHaskell library).

The FForm type can be used as a monad, which binds the additional (layout) information, reads the window pointer, executes the control creation functions, and writes a RefLink.

```haskell
instance (Monad m) ⇒ Monad (FForm win m)
instance (Monad m) ⇒ MonadReader (Window win) (FForm win m)
instance (Monad m) ⇒ MonadIO (FForm win m)
instance (Monad m) ⇒ MonadWriter (RefLink m IO) (FForm win m)
```

So, form₁ >>= f means:
• $f$ is applied to the additional information from $form_1$, producing (let’s call it) $form_2$.

• The window pointer passed to $form_1 \gg f$ is passed to $form_1$ and $form_2$.

• The IO actions in $form_1$ and $form_2$ are sequenced.

• The RefLink in $form_2$ is joined to the RefLink in $form_1$ using the ‘default’ mappend operator.

Furthermore, functions like ask (extract the window pointer), liftIO (insert an IO action at form creation time) and tell (insert a RefLink) are implemented for the FForm monad (being an instance of MonadReader, MonadIO and MonadWriter).

We stated in Sect. 1.4.2 that in order to combine two forms in a disjoint way, the RefLinkPlusM monoid should be used, which dynamically performs one of the update/propagate operations. Meanwhile, both forms should be shown: at form creation time, both IO actions should be performed, and both layout values are used. Therefore, we have implemented alternative bind and unit operators for forms: $\gg\pm$ and $\text{return}^0$. They are similar to $\gg=$ and $\text{return}$ in every respect, except that they use the RefLinkPlusM monoid.

\[
\text{return}^0 :: \text{MonadPlus } m \Rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{FForm } \text{win } m a
\]
\[
(\gg\pm) :: \text{MonadPlus } m \Rightarrow
\text{FForm } \text{win } m a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow \text{FForm } \text{win } m b) \rightarrow \text{FForm } \text{win } m b
\]

These operators are at the core of the disjoint form combinators radioGrid and checkRow, whose implementation is discussed in the next section.

1.4.4 Disjoint form combinators

A naïve disjoint form combinator would be

\[
\text{refToFom}_1 \text{ ‘or’ refToFom}_2 = \lambda \text{ref} \rightarrow
\text{refToFom}_1 \text{ ref } \gg\pm \lambda \text{lay}_1 \rightarrow
\text{refToFom}_2 \text{ ref } \gg\pm \lambda \text{lay}_2 \rightarrow
\text{return}^0 $ \text{column } 5 [\text{lay}_1, \text{lay}_2]$
\]

The composite form shows both forms, while the composite update function performs only one of the component update functions—the first one that succeeds. The same goes for the composite propagate operation. However, the form’s user has no means whatsoever to discover which update has been performed, or to influence which propagate to perform!\(^3\)

The radioGrid combinator does provide these functions: both are fulfilled by the radio buttons. When a subform’s update is performed, the system selects the radio button in front of it. Conversely, the form’s propagate is only performed if

\(^3\)Both propagate operations will succeed when performed. Due to the mplus semantics, the first one will always be selected.
the radio button in front of it is indeed selected (the user influences this during the form’s lifetime).

The nice thing is that we can express this behaviour quite elegantly in terms of RefLink operations. We show this by defining the somewhat simpler disjoint form combinator \texttt{alt}, which is a specialisation of \texttt{radioGrid}: it joins exactly two forms (denoted \texttt{refToForm1} and \texttt{refToForm2}). Assume that we can create a two-button radio group, returning a reference value \texttt{refRadio :: Ref IO Int} to its current selection, which can take values \{0,1\}. Now we can define a RefLink value:

\[
rl_1 = \text{refLink ref0 refRadio}
\]

where \texttt{ref0 = Ref}

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{where } \texttt{ref0 = Ref} \\
\quad \{ \texttt{val = return 0} \\
\quad \text{, } \texttt{app = } \lambda f \rightarrow \texttt{ do } \{ \texttt{ 0 ← f 0; return } () \} \\
\}
\end{array}
\]

In other words: we link \texttt{refRadio} to a reference ‘to the unchangeable number 0’, whose \texttt{val} is always 0, and whose \texttt{app} function only succeeds when the result of the function application is 0. This has the effect that the \texttt{update} operation in \texttt{rl1} always selects the topmost radio button (and succeeds), while its \texttt{propagate} operation only succeeds when this radio button is selected.\footnote{Note that this RefLink does not use any model state!}

We then lift \texttt{rl1} into a form, and join it with the first subform \texttt{form1} using \texttt{≫}, which utilizes the default (conjunctive) \texttt{mappend} operator:

\[
tell rl_1 \gg refToForm_1 \texttt{ref}
\]

This form has the desired properties: with an \texttt{update}, the radio button is only selected if the value in \texttt{form1} can be updated, and with a \texttt{propagate}, the value in \texttt{form1} is only propagated if the radio button is selected. We define and use \texttt{rl2} in a similar way, producing a second form. We finish the \texttt{alt} combinator by joining both forms with \texttt{≫±}:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{refToForm}_1 \texttt{\texttt{\texttt{\texttt{alt} refToForm2}} = \lambda ref} \\
\text{liftIO \ldots } \gg= (\text{laybutton1,laybutton2,refRadio}) \rightarrow \\
\text{let} \\
\text{where } \texttt{rl1} = \ldots \texttt{- see above} \\
\text{where } \texttt{rl2} = \ldots \\
\text{in} \\
\{ \text{tell rl1 } \gg \text{refToForm1 ref} \} \gg=\pm \lambda \text{layform1} \rightarrow \\
\{ \text{tell rl2 } \gg \text{refToForm2 ref} \} \gg=\pm \lambda \text{layform2} \rightarrow \\
\text{return}^{0} \text{ $\gg$ grid 5 5 } ([\text{laybutton1,layform1}],[\text{laybutton2,layform2}])
\end{array}
\]

What we have omitted in the second line goes into too much implementation detail; it is an IO action which creates the radio buttons, and returns the layout values \texttt{laybutton1 and laybutton2}, as well as \texttt{refRadio}.
The \textit{radioGrid} combinator is a straightforward generalization of \textit{alt} for lists. The \textit{checkRow} combinator is also very much like \textit{alt}, but does not show its second argument form. However, it does use its \textit{RefLink}.\footnote{Its \textit{RefLink} is joined with a \textit{refLink} between the value \textit{False} and the checkbox value.}

\section*{1.5 SAFETY}

The flexibility provided by compositional functional references has a downside: by omitting reference values, duplicating them, or using them in the wrong places, forms with strange behaviour can be constructed. We give some examples:

1. \textit{declare2} $\lambda(a, b) \rightarrow \textit{entry'} [] a$
   
   This form never shows or changes the second element of its subject type.

2. $\lambda a \rightarrow \textit{row'} 5 \textit{[entry'} [] a, \textit{entry'} [] a]\$
   
   This form shows its value twice, and only propagates the new value in the control on the right.

3. \textit{declareJust} $\$ \textit{entry'} []$
   
   This form is only updated if its model contains a \textit{Just} $x$ value (actually, this is the desired behaviour if the form is part of a disjoint form). If it does not, all forms in the same alternative of the surrounding \textquoteleft disjoint clause\textquoteright{} are prevented from being updated (normally, there should be none).

4. \textit{radioGrid} \textit{[entry'} [], \textit{entry'} []]\$
   
   This form will always put its value in the upper entry control. However, it will propagate values from whichever entry control has its radio button selected.

To prevent the construction of these forms, the programmer can follow some rules such as:

- Every declared reference should be used exactly once.

- Every data constructor of a form\textquoteleft s subject type should be declared exactly once.

- References declared outside a disjoint form must not be used inside it.

Of course, it would be better if these rules would be enforced automatically, e.g. by the type system. Future research should formalize these rules.

\section*{1.6 RELATED WORK}

As far as we know, the idea of explicitly using a radio button grid to combine forms in a disjoint way is new. The fact that some radio buttons make other elements (ir)relevant is recognized, but existing declarative (web) form languages
have to go out of their way to specify this. In XForms[12], it is accomplished by providing an element’s relevant property with a Boolean expression that includes an XPath pointer to the radio button choice. In WASH/CGI[9], the programmer builds a decision tree (see [10]) to express which data to use when a certain radio button is selected.

A simple disjoint form combinator is already introduced in the thesis[1] from which FunctionalForms originated. However, this combinator always joins exactly two alternative forms. If the subject types of the top form and bottom form are \( t_1 \) and \( t_2 \), resp., then the subject type of the composite form is always \( \text{Either } t_1 \mid t_2 \). In other words, logic and layout are not separated like they are presently.

Compositional references were introduced by Kagawa[5] as a means to compose mutable data structures such as arrays. In our previous work[1, 2] we used them in a more simple form and with a different goal: to conceptually separate a form’s subject type and its layout.

Closely related to compositional references are lenses[3], which are also pairs of accessor and modifier functions. While our approach uses a lot of ‘little’ references throughout the program, lenses are combined into a big lens which is the program; this program specifies a bidirectional transformation between model and view.

1.7 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we have identified two patterns for composing forms that edit values of a disjoint union type. The first pattern involves a list of radio buttons, and the second involves a check box. To support these patterns in the FunctionalForms library, we have introduced several new combinators.

These patterns illustrate a novel view, in which a form itself can be seen as ‘disjoint’. To demonstrate the fertility of this view, we have shown that these disjoint forms exhibit a cleaner separation between logic and user interface. This makes them more flexible.

However, this flexibility comes at a price: the construction of forms with unwanted behaviour is possible. Methods for preventing this have yet to be researched.

As a further enhancement to FunctionalForms, defining forms for values of a custom Haskell type is made easier, using a Template Haskell macro. This brings the library closer to real-life use. The library version discussed in this paper will shortly be available for download.6

We hope to further develop the approach of programming with reference values. We believe that it can be used to construct a far wider range of interfaces in a declarative way.

6http://www.cs.ru.nl/~sandr/FunctionalForms
REFERENCES


[12] The XForms home page can be found at http://www.w3.org/MarkUp/Forms/.